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# Properties of $q$ -Gaussian measures related to the isoperimetric and concentration profiles (Geometry of Moduli Space of Low Dimensional Manifolds)

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# Properties of $q$ -Gaussian measures related to the isoperimetric and concentration profiles

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## 1 Introduction

This note is devoted to properties related to the isoperimetric profile and the concentration profile of a non-Gaussian probability measure, in particular  $q$ -Gaussian measures, on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We always assume that any measure and any set are Borel.

On one hand, the isoperimetric profile of a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  describes the relation between the volume  $\mu(A)$  and the *boundary measure*  $\mu^+(A) := \lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \mu[A^\varepsilon \setminus A]/\varepsilon$  of  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $A^\varepsilon := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \inf_{a \in A} |x - a| < \varepsilon\}$  denotes the  $\varepsilon$ -open neighborhood of  $A$  with respect to the standard Euclidean metric  $|\cdot|$ . To be precise, the *isoperimetric profile*  $I[\mu]$  is the function on  $[0, 1]$  defined by

$$I[\mu](a) := \inf \{ \mu^+(A) \mid A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } \mu(A) = a \}.$$

We sometimes consider  $I[\mu]$  only on  $[0, 1/2]$  since a given set and its complement may have the same boundary measure under suitable conditions.

On the other hand, the concentration profile of a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  estimates the volume of the  $r$ -open neighborhood of sets having measure  $1/2$ . To be precise, the *concentration profile*  $C[\mu]$  is the function on  $[0, \infty)$  defined as

$$C[\mu](r) := \sup \{ 1 - \mu(A^r) \mid A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } \mu(A) \geq 1/2 \}.$$

Note that the both profiles can be defined for a probability measure on a metric space since the definition of the both profiles depend on only a probability measure and a distance function, where we do not take advantage of the Euclidean structure.

It is usually difficult to obtain the isoperimetric profile and the concentration profile of a given probability measure, however the both profiles of the Gaussian measure are known. Here the *Gaussian measure*  $\gamma_n$  is an absolutely continuous measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with density

$$\frac{d\gamma_n}{dx}(x) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{|x|^2}{2}\right)$$

with respect to the Lebesgue measure.

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**Theorem 1.1** ([3, Theorem 3.1], [11, Corollary 1]) *It holds for any  $a \in [0, 1]$  that*

$$I[\gamma_n](a) = I[\gamma_1](a) = G'(\Phi(a)),$$

where  $\Phi$  is the inverse function of  $G$  which is defined for  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  by

$$G(r) := \int_{-\infty}^r (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds = \gamma_1(-\infty, r].$$

Theorem 1.1 easily induces

$$C[\gamma_n](r) = C[\gamma_1](r) = 1 - G(r) = \int_r^\infty (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds \leq \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2}\right).$$

Since the isoperimetric profile and the concentration profile of  $\gamma_n$  are dimension free, we denote  $I := I[\gamma_n]$  and  $C := C[\gamma_n]$ .

We say that a probability measure  $\mu$  verifies a *Gaussian isoperimetric inequality* if there exists a positive constant  $c$  such that

$$I[\mu](a) \geq cI(a)$$

holds for any  $a \in [0, 1]$ . Similarly, we say that a probability measure verifies a *Gaussian concentration inequality* if there exist positive constants  $c$  and  $\lambda$  such that

$$C[\mu](r) \leq c \exp(-\lambda r^2/2)$$

holds for any  $r \geq 0$ . If a probability measure verifies a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality, then the probability measure also verifies a Gaussian concentration inequality, which follows from Proposition 1.2 below and the fact that there exists a positive constant  $c$  such that

$$I(a) \geq ca\sqrt{\log 1/a}$$

holds for  $a \in [0, 1/2]$ .

**Proposition 1.2** ([6, Proposition 1.7]) *For a continuous function  $\sigma : [\log 2, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ , let  $\alpha$  be the inverse function of*

$$r \mapsto \int_{\log 2}^r \frac{1}{\tilde{\sigma}(s)} ds, \quad \tilde{\sigma}(s) = \begin{cases} \sigma(s) & \text{if } s \geq \log 2, \\ \sigma(-\log(1 - e^{-s})) & \text{if } s < \log 2. \end{cases}$$

*If a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  verifies*

$$I[\mu](a) \geq a\sigma(\log 1/a)$$

*on  $[0, 1/2]$ , then it holds for  $r \geq 0$  that*

$$C[\mu](r) \leq \exp(-\alpha(r)).$$

More generally, we have the following implication from an isoperimetric inequality to a concentration inequality since the difference of the volumes between a set and its  $r$ -open neighborhood is roughly considered as an integral of the boundary measures of the  $t$ -open neighborhoods of the given set on  $t \in (0, r)$ .

**Proposition 1.3** ([4, Corollary 2.2]) *Let  $\mu$  be an absolutely continuous probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure. If there exists a strictly increasing, differentiable function  $v$  from an interval of  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $[0, 1]$  such that  $I[\mu] \geq v' \circ u$  holds on  $[0, 1]$ , where  $u$  is the inverse function of  $v$ , then it holds for every  $r > 0$  that*

$$C[\mu](r) \leq 1 - v(u(1/2) + r).$$

We thus find that a probability measure verifies a Gaussian concentration inequality if the probability measure verifies a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality.

There are several criteria for a probability measure to verify a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality. For example, given an absolutely continuous logarithmic concave probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure, namely there exists a convex function  $V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (-\infty, \infty]$  such that  $d\mu(x)/dx = \exp(-V(x))$  holds on  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the following equivalent condition is known.

**Theorem 1.4** ([1, Theorem 1.3]) *For an absolutely continuous logarithmic concave probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure, the followings are equivalent to each other:*

- $\mu$  verifies a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality.
- $\mu$  verifies a logarithmic Sobolev inequality, that is there exists a positive constant  $c$  such that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f^2 \log(f^2) d\mu - \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f^2 d\mu \log \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f^2 d\mu \right) \leq c \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla f|^2 d\mu$$

*holds for every locally Lipschitz function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with its distributional gradient  $\nabla f$ .*

- $\mu$  verifies a Herbst necessary condition, that is there exists a positive constant  $\varepsilon$  satisfying

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp(\varepsilon|x|^2) d\mu(x) < \infty.$$

Moreover, for an absolutely continuous probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure, if the Hessian of  $-\log(d\mu/dx)$  is uniformly bounded below by some  $K \in \mathbb{R}$ , then verifying a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality is also equivalent to verifying a Gaussian concentration inequality. This was proved for a more general probability measure on a Riemannian manifold (see [7, Theorems 1.1, 1.2]), where the lower boundedness of the  $\infty$ -Ricci curvature is used instead of the uniform logarithmic concavity of a probability measure.

**Definition 1.5** Let  $(M, g)$  be an  $n$ -dimensional complete connected Riemannian manifold without boundary and fix an arbitrary measure

$$\omega = e^{-f} \text{vol}_g, \quad f \in C^\infty(M),$$

where  $\text{vol}_g$  denotes the Riemannian volume measure of  $(M, g)$ . Given  $N \in (-\infty, 0) \cup [n, \infty]$  and  $K \in \mathbb{R}$ , we define the  $N$ -Ricci curvature of  $\omega$  by

$$\text{Ric}_N^\omega := \begin{cases} \text{Ric} + \text{Hess } f & \text{if } N = \infty, \\ \text{Ric} + \text{Hess } f - \frac{Df \otimes Df}{N - n} & \text{if } N \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (n, \infty), \\ \text{Ric} + \text{Hess } f - \infty \cdot (Df \otimes Df) & \text{if } N = n, \end{cases}$$

where by convention  $\infty \cdot 0 = 0$ .

We remark that the  $N$ -Ricci curvature is originally defined only for  $N \in [n, \infty]$  and if  $\text{Ric}_N^\omega(v, v) \geq Kg(v, v)$  holds for every tangent vector  $v$  to  $M$  and for some  $K \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $N \in [n, \infty)$  then  $(M, \omega)$  behaves like a Riemannian manifold with dimension bounded above by  $N$  and Ricci curvature bounded below by  $K$ . We refer to [5], [10] and references therein for the details, and to [9] for the case of  $N \in (-\infty, 0)$ .

## 2 Probability measure on an admissible quadruple

It is known that if the  $\infty$ -Ricci curvature of  $\omega$  is bounded below by some  $K > 0$ , then  $\omega$  verifies a Gaussian isoperimetric inequality and hence a Gaussian concentration inequality (for instance, see [8, Theorem 5]). It is then natural to ask what kind of an isoperimetric inequality and a concentration inequality hold for a non-Gaussian probability measure whose  $\infty$ -Ricci curvature is not bounded from below. Moreover, under a suitable condition, are the two inequalities equivalent to each other? To discuss this, we deal with the following condition (see [9, Definition 4.3], where the condition is slightly different).

**Definition 2.1** We say that a quadruple  $(M, \omega, \varphi, \Psi)$  is *admissible* if all the following conditions hold:

- $M$  is an  $n$ -dimensional complete connected Riemannian manifold with  $n \geq 2$ .
- $\varphi$  is a non-decreasing, positive, continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  such that

$$\theta_\varphi := \sup_{s>0} \left\{ \frac{s}{\varphi(s)} \cdot \lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(s+\varepsilon) - \varphi(s)}{\varepsilon} \right\} \in \left( 0, \frac{n+1}{n} \right]$$

and  $\theta_\varphi \neq 1, 3/2$  with  $\varphi(1) = 1$ .

- $\Psi$  is a function on  $M$  such that

$$M_\Psi^\varphi := \left\{ x \in M \mid \Psi(x) \in \left( -\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\varphi(s)} ds, -\int_1^0 \frac{1}{\varphi(s)} ds \right) \right\} \neq \emptyset$$

and  $\Psi > -L_{\theta_\varphi}$  hold, where we set

$$L_{\theta_\varphi} := \begin{cases} (\theta_\varphi - 1)^{-1} & \text{if } \theta_\varphi > 1, \\ \infty & \text{if } \theta_\varphi \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

- $\omega$  is a positive measure on  $M$  satisfying  $\text{Ric}_N^\omega(v, v) \geq 0$  for  $N = (\theta_\varphi - 1)^{-1}$  and for every tangent vector  $v$  to  $M_\Psi^\varphi$ .

Note that if  $\varphi$  is differentiable, then  $\theta_\varphi$  is the upper bound of the differentiable coefficient of  $\varphi$ . We denote by  $\delta_\varphi$  the quantity corresponding to the lower bound of the differentiable coefficient of  $\varphi$ , that is,

$$\delta_\varphi := \inf_{s>0} \left\{ \frac{s}{\varphi(s)} \cdot \overline{\lim}_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(s+\varepsilon) - \varphi(s)}{\varepsilon} \right\}.$$

We also define the  $\varphi$ -exponential function by

$$\exp_\varphi(\tau) := \sup \left\{ t > 0 \mid \int_1^t \frac{1}{\varphi(s)} ds \leq \tau \right\},$$

where we set  $\exp_\varphi(\tau) := 0$  for  $\tau \leq \int_1^0 1/\varphi(s) ds$  by convention. Take for example, if  $\varphi_q(s) = s^q$  with  $q \neq 1$ , then we have

$$\exp_q(\tau) := \exp_{\varphi_q}(\tau) = (1 + (1 - q)\tau)_+^{1/(1-q)},$$

where we set  $[\tau]_+ := \max\{\tau, 0\}$  and by convention  $0^a := \infty$  for  $a < 0$ . Since  $\exp_q$  recovers the usual exponential function when  $q \rightarrow 1$ , we set  $\exp_1(\tau) := \exp(\tau)$ .

We remark that if  $\Psi$  is  $K$ -convex for some  $K > 0$  on  $M_\Psi^\varphi$ , then we may assume that the measure  $\exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\omega$  on an admissible quadruple  $(M, \omega, \varphi, \Psi)$  is a probability measure without loss of generality (see [9, Lemma 4.5]). In this case, the probability measure  $\exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\omega$  verifies a non-Gaussian concentration inequality. Here the  $K$ -convexity of a function is roughly equivalent to that the Hessian of a function along any geodesic is bounded below by  $K$  (see [9, Definition 4.1] for the precise definition).

**Proposition 2.2** ([9, Theorem 7.9]) *For an admissible quadruple  $(M, \omega, \varphi, \Psi)$ , we set  $\mu := \exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\omega$  and  $\cdot_0 := \max\{1, \|\exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\|_\infty\}$ . Suppose the  $K$ -convexity of  $\Psi$  for some  $K > 0$  and  $\mu[M] = 1$ .*

- (i) *If  $\theta_\varphi < 1$  and  $\delta_\varphi > 0$ , then there exists a positive constant  $c_1$  depending only on  $\theta_\varphi$  and  $\delta_\varphi$  such that we have for any  $r > 0$*

$$C[\mu](r) \leq c_1 / \exp_{\delta_\varphi} \left( \frac{K}{4}, {}_{\cdot_0}^{\delta_\varphi - 1} r^2 \right).$$

- (ii) *If  $\theta_\varphi \in (1, 3/2)$ ,  $\delta_\varphi > 3(\theta_\varphi - 1)$  and if  $\omega[M] < \infty$ , then there exist positive constants  $c_2, c_3$  depending only on  $\theta_\varphi$  and  $\delta_\varphi$  such that we have for any  $r > 0$*

$$C[\mu](r) \leq c_2 \exp_{2\theta_\varphi - \delta_\varphi} \left( -c_3 \frac{K}{2}, {}_{\cdot_0}^{\delta_\varphi - \theta_\varphi} \omega[M]^{1 - \theta_\varphi} r^2 \right).$$

Moreover, when  $\varphi(s) = s^q$  and  $\theta_\varphi = \delta_\varphi = q \rightarrow 1$ , the two inequalities above recover a Gaussian concentration inequality.

A fundamental and important example of an admissible quadruple is  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $n \geq 2$ ) equipped with the Lebesgue measure and  $\varphi_q(s) = s^q$  with  $q \in (0, (n+1)/n]$  and  $q \neq 1, 3/2$ ,  $\Psi(x) = |x|^2/2$ . In this case, there exists a constant  $c(n, q)$  such that  $1 + (1 - q)c(n, q) > 0$  and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp_q \left( -\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right) dx = 1$$

(see [12] and Section 3 below for the explicit value of  $c(n, q)$ ). In addition,

$$B_q^n := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \exp_q \left( -\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right) > 0 \right\}$$

contains the origin and is bounded (resp. unbounded) if  $q < 1$  (resp.  $q > 1$ ). An absolutely continuous probability measure  $\gamma_n^q$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the density

$$\frac{d\gamma_n^q}{dx} = \exp_q \left( -\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right)$$

with respect to the Lebesgue measure is called the *q-Gaussian measure*. According to [9, Theorem 5.7], the *q*-Gaussian measure can be regarded as an extremal element among all the probability measures  $\exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\omega$  on an admissible quadruple  $(M, \omega, \varphi, \Psi)$  as well as the Gaussian measure among all the probability measures on a Riemannian manifold whose  $\infty$ -Ricci curvature is bounded from below.

In this way, it turns out that a probability measure  $\exp_\varphi(-\Psi)\omega$  on an admissible quadruple  $(M, \omega, \varphi, \Psi)$  with certain conditions verifies a non-Gaussian isoperimetric inequality characterized by  $\exp_{q(\varphi)}$ , where  $q(\varphi)$  depends on  $\theta_\varphi$  and  $\delta_\varphi$ . In particular, if  $\varphi(s) = s^q$ , then  $q(\varphi) = q$  holds. However, as far as the author knows, the isoperimetric inequality for such a probability measure is not available in the literature, even for the case of the *q*-Gaussian measure.

### 3 Properties of $\varphi$ -Gaussian measure

In this section, we provide some properties of the *q*-Gaussian measure, which are related to the concentration profile and may be useful to investigate the isoperimetric profile. We first discuss the logarithmic concavity of the *q*-Gaussian measure.

**Proposition 3.1** *For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and any  $q \in (0, (n+1)/n]$  with  $q \neq 3/2$ , define the function  $V_q$  on the open set*

$$B_q^n := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \exp_q \left( -\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right) > 0 \right\}$$

by

$$V_q(x) := -\log\left(\frac{d\gamma_n^q(x)}{dx}\right) = -\log\left(\exp_q\left(-\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q)\right)\right).$$

We moreover set  $\lambda_q(n) := 1 + (1 - q)c(n, q) > 0$ . Then for the smallest eigenvalue  $\lambda(x)$  of the Hessian matrix of  $V_q$  at  $x \in B_q^n$  satisfies

$$\lambda(x) \geq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\lambda_q(n)} & \text{if } q \leq 1, \\ -\frac{1}{8\lambda_q(n)} & \text{if } q > 1. \end{cases} \quad (3.1)$$

*Proof.* Consider the function on  $B_q^n$  of the form

$$f_q(x) := 1 + (1 - q)\left(-\frac{|x|^2}{2} + c(n, q)\right) > 0.$$

We compute  $f_q(0) = \lambda_q(n)$  and  $\nabla f_q(x) = -(1 - q)x$ . It follows from the relation  $V_q = -\log(f_q)/(1 - q)$  that

$$\nabla V_q(x) = x/f_q(x),$$

moreover that the  $(i, j)$ -component of the Hessian matrix of  $V_q$  at  $x$  is given by

$$(1 - q)\frac{x_i x_j}{f_q(x)^2} + \frac{\delta_{ij}}{f_q(x)},$$

where  $\delta_{ii} = 1$  and  $\delta_{ij} = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ . It is easy to check that all the eigenvalue of  $(H_{ij}(0))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$  are  $1/f_q(0) = 1/\lambda_q(n)$ . In the case of  $x \neq 0$ , let  $\{v_k\}_{k=1}^n$  be an orthogonal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $v_1 = x/|x|$ . Then, for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $v_k$  is the eigenvector of  $(H_{ij}(x))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$  whose eigenvalue is

$$(1 - q)\frac{|x|^2 \delta_{1k}}{f_q(x)^2} + \frac{1}{f_q(x)}. \quad (3.2)$$

In the case of  $q \leq 1$ , it follows from  $f_q \in (0, \lambda_q(n)]$  that

$$(1 - q)\frac{|x|^2}{f_q(x)^2} + \frac{1}{f_q(x)} \geq \frac{1}{f_q(x)} \geq \frac{1}{\lambda_q(n)}.$$

For  $q > 1$ , we have  $f_q \in [\lambda_q(n), \infty)$  and

$$\frac{1}{f_q(x)} \geq (1 - q)\frac{|x|^2}{f_q(x)^2} + \frac{1}{f_q(x)} = \frac{\lambda_q(n) + (1 - q)|x|^2/2}{(\lambda_q(n) - (1 - q)|x|^2/2)^2} \geq -\frac{1}{8\lambda_q(n)}.$$

This completes the proof of the proposition.  $\square$



**Remark 3.2** (1) Note that  $\lambda_q(n) \rightarrow \lambda_1(n) = 1$  as  $q \rightarrow 1$ , and  $\lambda(x) = \lambda_1(n) = 1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . On one hand, (3.1) recovers  $\lambda(x) \geq 1$  as  $q \nearrow 1$ . On the other hand, when  $q \searrow 1$ , (3.1) does not recovers  $\lambda(x) \geq 1$ , however (3.2) recovers  $\lambda(x) = 1$ .  
 (2) Given any  $q \in (0, (n+1)/n]$  with  $q \neq 1, 3/2$ , let  $N_q \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (n, \infty)$  satisfy  $1 - q \geq 1/(N_q - n)$ . It then holds for any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in B_q^n$  that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hess } V_q(x)(v, v) - \frac{DV_q(x) \otimes DV_q(x)(v, v)}{N_q - n} &= (1 - q) \frac{\langle v, x \rangle^2}{f_q(x)^2} + \frac{|v|^2}{f_q(x)} - \frac{\langle v, x \rangle^2}{(N_q - n)f_q(x)^2} \\ &\geq \frac{|v|^2}{f_q(x)}. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that, for  $q > 1$  (hence  $N_q$  is negative), the  $N_q$ -Ricci curvature of  $\gamma_n^q$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the standard Euclidean metric is non-negative on the whole of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , however little is known concerning a measure having the non-negative  $N$ -Ricci curvature for some negative  $N$ . For example, although a Poincaré type inequalities for  $\gamma_n^q$  are proved in [2], the condition  $\omega(M) < \infty$  in Proposition 2.2(ii) does not hold for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the Lebesgue measure and then  $\gamma_n^q$  may not verify a concentration inequality in terms of the  $q$ -exponential function.

On the other hand, for  $q < 1$ , the  $N$ -Ricci curvature of  $\gamma_n^q$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the standard Euclidean metric is bounded below by  $K$  on  $B_q^n$  if  $N \geq n + (1 - q)^{-1}$  and  $K \leq 1/f_q(0)$ . There are many study about a measure whose  $N$ -Ricci curvature is bounded from below for some positive  $N$ , however we usually assume the positivity of a measure and the completeness of a metric space.

We finally estimate the smallest Lipchitz constant  $L_q(n)$  of  $T_{n,q}$  which pushes forward  $\gamma_n$  to  $\gamma_n^q$ . The existence of such a map  $T_{n,q}$  is guaranteed for any  $q \in (0, 1)$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  by [13, Section 4]. To do this, set

$$R_q(n) := \sup \left\{ r \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exp_q \left( -\frac{r^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right) > 0 \right\} = \left( \frac{2\lambda_q(n)}{1 - q} \right)^{1/2} < \infty.$$

**Proposition 3.3** *For any  $q \in (0, 1)$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have*

$$\begin{aligned} R_q(n)^{n+2/(1-q)} &= \pi^{-n/2} \left( \frac{2}{1 - q} \right)^{1/(1-q)} \Gamma \left( \frac{n}{2} + \frac{2 - q}{1 - q} \right) / \Gamma \left( \frac{2 - q}{1 - q} \right), \\ R_q(n)^2 \cdot \frac{(1 - q)}{(n + 2)(1 - q) + 2} &\leq L_q(n)^2, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Gamma$  stands for the Gamma function.

*Proof.* The direct calculation gives

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} d\gamma_n^q(x) = \frac{2\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(n/2)} \int_0^{R_q(n)} \exp_q \left( -\frac{r^2}{2} + c(n, q) \right) r^{n-1} dr \\ &= \frac{2\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(n/2)} \lambda_q(n)^{1/(1-q)} R_q(n)^n \int_0^1 (1 - s^2)^{1/(1-q)} s^{n-1} ds \\ &= \pi^{n/2} \lambda_q(n)^{1/(1-q)} R_q(n)^n \Gamma \left( \frac{2 - q}{1 - q} \right) / \Gamma \left( \frac{n}{2} + \frac{2 - q}{1 - q} \right), \end{aligned}$$

which implies the first equality. Similarly, we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{R^n} |x|^2 d\gamma_n^q(x) &= \frac{n\pi^{n/2}}{2} \lambda_q(n)^{1/(1-q)} R_q(n)^{n+2} \Gamma\left(\frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) / \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + \frac{2-q}{1-q} + 1\right) \\ &= R_q(n)^2 \cdot \frac{n(1-q)}{(n+2)(1-q)+2}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, by the definition of the push-forward measure, we have

$$\int_{R^n} |x|^2 d\gamma_n^q(x) = \int_{R^n} |T_{n,q}(x)|^2 d\gamma_n(x) \leq \int_{R^n} L_q(n)^2 |x|^2 d\gamma_n(x) = nL_q(n)^2.$$

Combining the these implies

$$R_q(n)^2 \cdot \frac{(1-q)}{(n+2)(1-q)+2} \leq L_q(n)^2.$$

□

From [13, Theorem 1.2] we deduce the another estimate of  $L_q(n)$

$$\begin{aligned} (2\pi)^{1/2} L_q(n) &\geq \lambda_q(n)^{-1/n(1-q)} = \left(\frac{1-q}{2} R_q(n)^2\right)^{-1/n(1-q)} \\ &= \pi^{1/2} R_q(n) \left[ \Gamma\left(\frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) / \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + \frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) \right]^{1/n}, \end{aligned}$$

where the equalities follow from the equality in Proposition 3.3. This estimate is better than the estimate in Proposition 3.3. For simplicity, let us consider the case of  $n = 2k$ . We then have

$$\left(k + 1 + \frac{1}{1-q}\right)^k \geq \prod_{j=1}^k \left(k + 1 - j + \frac{1}{1-q}\right) = \Gamma\left(k + \frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) / \Gamma\left(\frac{2-q}{1-q}\right),$$

which implies

$$\frac{R_q(2k)^2}{2} \frac{1-q}{(k+1)(1-q)+1} \leq \frac{R_q(2k)^2}{2} \left[ \Gamma\left(\frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) / \Gamma\left(k + \frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) \right]^{1/k}.$$

The asymptotic behavior of  $L_q(2k)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  is unknown, however we have

$$(2\pi)^{1/2} L_q(2k) \geq \left(\frac{1-q}{2} R_q(2k)^2\right)^{-1/2k(1-q)} = \pi^{1/a_k} \left(\frac{2}{1-q}\right)^{1/a_k} P_k^{-1/a_k} \rightarrow 1$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , where we set

$$P_k := \left[ \prod_{j=1}^k \left(k - j + \frac{2-q}{1-q}\right) \right]^{1/k} \in \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{1-q}, \frac{a_k}{2(1-q)} \right], \quad a_k := 2(k(1-q) + 1).$$

It thus is enough to show  $P_k^{-1/a_k} \rightarrow 1$ , or equivalently  $\log P_k^{-1/a_k} \rightarrow 0$ , as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . This follows from the observation that

$$0 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-1}{a_k} \log \frac{a_k}{2(1-q)} \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \log P_k^{-1/a_k} \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-1}{a_k} \log \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1-q} \right) = 0.$$

This suggests that, for  $q \in (0, 1)$ , the family  $\{\gamma_n^q\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of the  $q$ -Gaussian measures may not have the Lévy property (for instance, see [4, Section 3.3] about the definition of the Lévy property) and then suggests how difficult and interesting to investigate the asymptotic behavior of the concentration profiles of  $\{\gamma_n^q\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ .

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